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INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF.

THE CONVENTION AT BERKELEY.

By George Wing.

The Eleventh Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, held at Berkeley, California, July 15–21, was more largely attended than any previous gathering of the kind, over two hundred delegates being present. The proceedings were marked by an unusual degree of harmony. The conflict of theories and methods which has occupied so much of the time and attention of previous conventions was almost wholly absent. It was unanimously agreed that, like other people, the deaf differ widely in their mental and physical conditions, and, therefore, methods of instructions differing as widely are necessary for the highest development of the class. Instead of reading labored essays and plunging into acrimonious discussions as to the superiority of this or that method over others, the delegates assembled as a normal school, and the practical work of the school-room under the various systems of instruction was carefully illustrated.

A tendency towards simplification of prevailing methods was exhibited. In teaching articulation, the complicated system of "visible speech," of which we have heard so much, and of which so much was at one time expected, has given place to a simple system of diacritical marks. In the general instruction of the deaf in the use of written language, the more strict limitation of the number of words and forms of expression to be learned by the pupils in elementary classes was strongly urged and unanimously approved.

The war between the two prominent systems of instruction—the "manual" and the "oral"—which has been carried on so vigorously for many years, may be said to be practically ended, not through the victory of one side or the other, but through the better understanding of each other's methods and results. Discussions between men actuated only by philanthropic purposes, and upon matters in which selfish interest does not enter, lead to cordial recognition of whatever strength there may exist in each other's position, and the yielding of untenable points until they find themselves occupying common ground. Such has been the outcome of the long controversy upon the oral *vs.* the manual method. The method of the future is the "combined" or "American" method, in which the best features of both systems are incorporated. This method is outlined in papers read at the Berkeley convention by Dr. G. O. Fay, of Hartford, and Prof. A. L. E. Crouter, of Philadelphia, and covered by resolutions introduced by Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, of Washington, and adopted without a dissenting voice.

The benefits derived from the formal proceedings of conventions like this at Berkeley are equalled if not surpassed by those from the informal work outside. The special train bearing the delegates started from Chicago on Saturday, July 3d. It was side-tracked at Jacksonville, where the delegates, joined by another section from the south, were entertained by the State Institution at that place. Thence the train proceeded across the continent, pausing three days at Colorado Springs and two days at Salt Lake City, and reached Berkeley on the 14th. Throughout the journey there was a constant movement to and fro between the cars; old acquaintances clasped hands again after many years of separation; those who knew each other only by reputation now met for the first time, and lasting ties of friendship were formed. Experiences were compared and means and methods discussed to such an extent, that at last it was laughingly proposed to fine anybody who "talked shop" before the convention was called to order at Berkeley!

When the convention adjourned, the delegates scattered in various directions, the majority taking the steamers for Oregon on the 23d and 28th, and thence going east by the Northern Pacific Railroad. A number of the party visited Puget Sound, a few prolonged their journey to Alaska, and many spent several days in the National Park. All returned to their homes invigorated in body and mind, with fresh thoughts and greater encouragement to sustain them in their labors.

The arrangements for the transportation of the delegates, and for their comfort *en route* and at the California Institution, were wonderfully perfect in every way. Dr. Gillett, chairman of the committee on transportation, and Prof. Wilkinson, with a *carte blanche* from the trustees of the California Institution, strove to outdo each other, but it was a drawn game between the two!

FIRST DAY.

The sessions of the first day were occupied in the election of officers and the usual "felicitations" upon such occasions.

Dr. Philip G. Gillett was elected President, and Prof. H. C. Hammond Secretary.

Governor Stoneman, of California, welcomed the delegates in behalf of the State. Hon. Erastus Brooks, of New York, replied. Mr. R. A. Redman extended a welcome in behalf of the board of trustees of the California Institution. In the course of his remarks he strongly condemned the prevalent idea that schools for the deaf are in any respect charitable institutions. "They are educational in design and practice, standing in the same relation to the community as the public schools, the high schools, or the university."

Prof. Matheson, of Ontario, was called upon and entertained the convention with a witty speech, which was received with cheers and shouts of laughter.

The meeting of Governor Stoneman, of California, and Professor Connor, of North Carolina, was a dramatic and pleasing incident. They related how they had chased each other about in the wilds of North Carolina, during the civil war, where Stoneman finally captured Connor!

Remarks were made by Ira P. Rankin, of California, Geo. E. Skinner, of Minnesota, and Dr. I. L. Peet, of New York. Prof. Martin Kellogg, of the State University, Dr. Henry M. Storrs, of New Jersey, and President E. M. Gallaudet, of the National Deaf-Mute College at Washington, spoke briefly in allusion to the late Richard S. Storrs, an eminent teacher of the deaf.

At the evening session the convention settled down to business. A paper read by Prof. I. N. Tate, of Missouri, on "How to Secure Better Attendance at Schools for the Deaf and Dumb," was followed by earnest discussion.

SECOND DAY.

The normal section, "Instruction for Primary Classes," conducted by Professor Geo. L. Weed, of Philadelphia, took possession of the floor. Papers by Miss Goode, of Illinois, and Mr. Keisel, of Washington, D. C., were read, which outlined the methods pursued by them. Professor Weed classified the topics suggested by these papers as follows: First, vocabulary; second, tense; third, correction of mistakes; fourth, exercises most profitable for primary teaching. These topics were thoroughly discussed, and considerable diversity of opinion was developed.

Professor F. W. Booth, of Philadelphia, treated the subject of arithmetic exhaustively. He urged the teaching of arithmetic as the science of numbers, not the manipulation of figures. He illustrated practical school-room work, using bundles of splints, and he showed that children have a tendency to take no thought of the value of figures, but learn to manipulate them mechanically. Letters of the alphabet, or arbitrary marks having no value attached to them, could be manipulated in the same way.

Kindergarten work was treated by Professor Z. F. Westervelt, of Rochester, N. Y.

Professor E. A. Fay, of Washington, D. C., read a paper on "Mortality and Vital Statistics of Teachers of the Deaf."

A highly interesting paper on "Aphasia in Relation to Deafness" was read by Professor Weston Jenkins, of New Jersey.

THIRD DAY.

No session was held on Saturday, July 17th. The delegates embarked on the steamer *El Capitan*, and after an excursion to the Golden Gate and points of interest on the bay, spent a portion of the day in San Francisco.

FOURTH DAY.

The Sunday sessions were devoted to discussions of "Sabbath Exercises in an Institution for the Deaf and Dumb." President Gillett described the practice in the Illinois Institution. A paper was read by Professor J. A. McClure, of Nebraska, on "The Moral Phase of our Work," and by Professor J. L. Noyes, of Minnesota, on "The Importance of Religious Training for the Deaf and Dumb." The practice in different institutions was severally described by Messrs. Hotchkiss and Gallaudet, of Washington, D. C., Mr. Weed, of Pennsylvania, Miss Campbell, of Missouri, Mr. Hasenstab, of Illinois, Mr. Wilkinson, of California, Mr. Crouter, of Pennsylvania, and Mr. Moses, of Tennessee.

Much stress was laid upon keeping the religious instruction of the deaf free from denominational bias. Except in the few strictly denominational schools, no line is anywhere drawn between Catholics and Protestants. Dr. Gallaudet stated that at the last exhibition at the National College, Father Doonan, of the Georgetown Catholic University, Chief of the Society of Jesus in America, delivered an extemporaneous prayer and pronounced his benediction and blessing upon the institution.

Hon. Erastus Brooks stated that the appropriations of money for the support of schools for the deaf by the State of New York were made impartially, regardless of denominational or undenominational character. This gave rise to an animated discussion between Professor Noyes and Dr. Thomas Gallaudet. The former maintained that the State had no right to dictate to parents in matters of religious instruction; it could only take cognizance of the fact that the children received good moral instruction. The latter maintained that the money of the State should be given only to undenominational schools.

FIFTH DAY.

The section work opened with a discussion of "Intermediate Instruction in Language." The discussion took a wide range, embracing "the correction and avoidance of mistakes," "natural science," "botany," and other studies. Many of the delegates took part.

The "Question Box" was opened. "What is the best method of conducting examinations?" was answered by Prof. Crouter; "How to teach deaf-mutes to tell the time of day," by Miss Wright, of Michigan. An inquiry as to methods in managing "hard cases" was answered by Miss Dutch and Mr. Goodall.

"The True Combined System of Instruction" was ably and exhaustively treated by Professor A. L. E. Crouter, of Philadelphia. He favored "oral" and "manual" instruction in the same school, but not in the same class. A man can not serve two masters; so a teacher should devote his attention to one method, not to a mixture. The time and energies of the pupil should not be divided between oral and sign classes. For *all* the pupils, however, he advocated the use of signs for purposes of general instruction.

Dr. I. L. Peet, of New York, advocated a different method, one that sought to apply each system, the oral and the manual, not to selected classes, but to all classes at different times.

Dr. Gilbert O. Fay, of Hartford, next read a paper, entitled "Comprehensive Education in its Philosophy and Practice." He urged the adoption of every means within the reach of the teacher to develop the mental activities of the pupil, and strongly condemned blind adherence to the dictum of any system. Spontaneous feeling will maintain itself against all precepts of teachers and their severest repressive discipline. Therefore, the spontaneous language of signs should not be repressed, but encouraged and utilized by the teacher. The intellectual force gathered in the tide of daily life, in its flood of events, great and small, in its amusements, its business, its necessities, will sweep away difficulties that are impassable barriers in the way of the child whose ideas are limited, and whose reasoning powers are undeveloped. To make room for oral speech, the range in the study of knowledge need not, should not be narrowed.

In the discussion which ensued, remarks were made by Professor Noyes, of Minnesota, President E. M. Gallaudet, of Washington, Professor Elmendorf, of New York, Professor Gillespie, of Nebraska, and others. The following resolutions, introduced by President Gallaudet, were unanimously adopted:

WHEREAS, The experience of many years in the instruction of the deaf has plainly shown that among the members of this class of persons great difference exists in mental and physical condition, and in capacity for improvement, making results easily possible in certain classes which are actually unattainable in others, these differences suggesting very widely different treatment with different individuals; it is therefore

Resolved, That the system of instruction existing at present in America commends itself to the world, for the reason that its tendency is to include all known methods and expedients which have been found to be of value in the education of the deaf, while it allows diversity and independence of action, working at the same time harmony, and aiming at the attainment of a common object by all.

Resolved, That earnest and persistent endeavors should be made in every school for the deaf to teach every pupil to speak and read from the lips, and that such efforts should only be abandoned when it is plainly evident that the measure of success attainable is so small as not to justify the necessary amount of labor.

The last resolution, on motion of Professor Elmendorf, was amended so as to include the statement that "children should be committed to experienced teachers," and by Professor Gillespie so as to include the statement that "those capable of instruction by the ear should be instructed orally."

SIXTH DAY.

The normal section, "Instruction in Art," was taken up and ably handled by Mrs. A. J. Griffith, teacher of art in the Illinois Institution, assisted by Misses Paten and Peek. Mr. Elmendorf, of New York, spoke on "Mechanical Drawing and Results." Miss Gallagher, of Illinois, spoke of "Wood

Carving." Miss Jameson, of Wisconsin, and Madame Le Prince, of New York, outlined the methods pursued in the institutions with which they are connected.

Miss Richards, of Philadelphia, Sister Mary Ann, of the Buffalo, N. Y., Catholic School, and Miss Fish, of Maryland, described their methods of oral teaching.

At the afternoon session the following papers were read : "Technical Education," by F. D. Clarke, of Arkansas ; "Industrial Training," by Warring Wilkinson, of California ; "Physical Training," by J. W. Chickering, of Washington, D. C. ; "Our Institutions as Temporary Homes for the Deaf and Dumb," by Gilbert O. Fay, of Connecticut.

On motion of Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, the name of the association was changed to "National Association of Instructors of the Deaf."

President Gillett announced that the next conference of principals would meet at Jackson, Mississippi, in the summer of 1888.

Quite a breeze was created by the query from the Question Box, "Can a teacher do good work for eight hours a day?" Professor Clarke, of Arkansas, vigorously and pointedly answered the question in the negative. Dr. Peet, of New York, defended the eight-hour system, which he was the first to introduce. Professor Denison, of Washington, showed, from a personal canvass among teachers in New York and elsewhere, that there was a nearly unanimous sentiment against it. Professor Kennedy, of Illinois, mildly suggested that teachers who did not work eight hours in the school-room usually had supervisory and other work to do.

Another question, "Are two heads ever beneficial to an institution?" brought the two heaviest guns in the convention to bear upon each other at point-blank range. Dr. P. G. Gillett and Hon. Erastus Brooks took opposite sides of the question, and stated their views in a very decided fashion. Dr. Gillett, while courteously admitting the truth of Mr. Brooks' statement that the two-headed monster lived and flourished in New York, declared that its continued existence there was due to the special favor of Providence.

Professor James Denison read a very interesting paper on "The Manual Alphabet in the Public Schools." The paper was much applauded, and resolutions were adopted in favor of concerted action to secure its wide publication and to call the attention of school officers in the several States to the matter.

In the evening a reception was held in the chapel of the institution by Mr. and Mrs. Wilkinson. In addition to the members of the convention, a large number of persons from all parts of the State were present.

SEVENTH DAY.

Miss Fish, of Maryland, illustrated her method of teaching lip-reading. Mr. Goodall, of California, delivered an address on "The Study of History." A series of resolutions were adopted in favor of the proposed monument to the memory of Thomas H. Gallaudet, the first instructor of the deaf in America.

At the afternoon session the following papers were read : "How to Conduct a Scientific Examination," by Theo. Grady, of California ; "Thoughts from my School-Room," by Laura C. Sheridan, of Illinois ; "The Importance of the Work of Supervisors," by Philip Hasenstab, of Illinois ; "The Duties of Supervisors," by R. M. Ziegler, of Philadelphia.

The committee on necrology made its report showing that twenty-four deaths of members to the national conferences since 1882 had occurred. Brief and fitting tributes were read by friends of the deceased among the delegates. An adjournment out of respect to their memories took place until the evening, when very clever exhibitions by classes in aural work were given.

The following poem, from the pen of Mrs. I. L. Peet, was read by Professor Wilkinson and translated into signs by the husband of the author, Dr. Peet, of New York :

The East and the West.

We take thy hand, O fair young West,
We clasp it close as here we stand ;
Our old traditions of the East
Grow misty in this wondrous land.
And looking in the radiant eyes,
Our hearts beat high with glad surprise !

Tired Pilgrims over desert wastes,
'Neath burning suns we come to thee ;
But as the mountain torrent hastes
Through lone dark canyons to the sea,
So here with hurrying step we came,
To seek thine aid, behold thy fame.

The frowning Rockies, as we passed,
Bent o'er us their protecting hand ;
The sad Sierras seemed to smile
Across, on this thrice-favored land,
To where, amid thy endless flowers,
Shall love and rest awhile be ours.

O golden land ! O hearts of gold !
How often in our dreams
We saw thy mountains, pressed thy hand,
And walked beside thy streams ;
But dreams are dim and visions naught,
Beside the glory thou hast wrought.

We brought to thee of all our best,
Thou gavest unto us thine own ;
And interchange of thought and hope
Have given a clearer, deeper tone
To Duty's voice, to Toil's command,
And firmer, surer, now we stand.

We stand together, West and East,
One hope, one work, one aim.
And bright fires, or far or near,
Shall burn the tender flame
Of memories of this union sweet,
To make our labor more complete.

Then once again with fond regret
We clasp in ours thy hand,
And look farewell with misty eyes
O'er this enchanted land,
To where thy mountains grand in state
Keep guard around thy Golden Gate.

At the conclusion of the poem Hon. G. E. Skinner, of Minnesota, in behalf of the delegates, presented to Dr. Gillett a handsome silver service, as a token of their appreciation of his labors in arranging the details of their journey across the continent, and in other ways contributing to make the convention a grand success.

In the evening the delegates were entertained with an interesting lecture on the Samoan Islands, by Mr. Theodore Lord, of the Board of Directors of the California Institution. The convention was then called to order, numerous resolutions of thanks were adopted, and President Gillett declared the convention adjourned *sine die*.

SUPERINTENDENTS OF INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE.

The October number of the *American Journal of Insanity* contains the proceedings of the Association of Medical Superintendents of American Institutions for the Insane at its 40th annual meeting at Lexington, Kentucky, May 18–20. This has been distributed in pamphlet form in advance of publication, and we acknowledge indebtedness to the *Journal* for the information given.

The roll shows thirty-nine physicians in attendance from nineteen States and the province of Ontario. Seven of them were assistant physicians.

The number of papers read was five, including with them the address of the president, and some extemporaneous remarks by Dr. Foster Pratt, of Michigan. Their titles were as follows :

President's Address—Common Errors, Theoretical and Practical, Relating to Insanity, by Dr. O. Everts.

The Data of Recovery from Insanity, by Dr. Henry M. Hurd.

Pauper Immigration, by Dr. Foster Pratt.

Training-Schools for Attendants, by Dr. W. D. Granger.

Hallucinations and Illusions of the Insane, by Dr. James D. Munson.

Resolutions expressing regret for the death of Dr. Cattell were adopted.

It was decided to hold the next annual meeting in Detroit, Michigan, beginning upon the second Friday in June, 1887, and Drs. Hurd, Pomeroy, and Pratt were appointed a committee of arrangements.

The topics principally discussed at this meeting were: the training of attendants and the "open door" system. The whole of the second day was devoted to these two questions.

With respect to recoveries, Dr. Stearns, of Hartford said: "I am inclined to think that we have in insanity no special standard of what is to constitute a recovery, any more than we have in other forms of disease. If we regard insanity as a disease of the grey matter of the brain, or of that portion of it that is comprised in blood-vessels and cells and connective tissue, and if there is actual structural change, I do not know that we have ever a right to suppose that those cells or the minute blood-vessels are restored to absolutely as perfect a condition as they were in before they were affected. Let us understand that what we mean by recovery is that the patient is restored to a condition of living with his friends and being able to perform his or her accustomed duties." Dr. McFarland, of Jacksonville, remarked that there is a class of cases in which superintendents "must not wait for recovery as we see it in men of good intellectual stamina. There is a certain point where, if we discharge the patient, he will go on to recovery outside; but if we keep him under treatment, there is a going back after a time, and we have a permanent, life-long case." Dr. Carriel, of Jacksonville, agreed with Dr. Hurd that "we may hope for recovery after the usual period of curability, as we ordinarily look upon it, has passed." Dr. Hill, of Independence, thought that "if all the persons in this room were furnished a list of patients discharged from a given institution, no two would make out the same number of recoveries; it is even possible that one might make out four times more recoveries than another who held different views as to what really constitutes a recovery." He would not himself feel sure that the mere fact of a patient's being able to stay at home constituted an entire recovery, and he believed that in Wisconsin the members of the State Board of Charities are in error in confounding recovery and improvement, which would explain the fact that they report patients recovered in their county asylums who have been discharged from the State institutions as incurable.

Dr. Pratt, after speaking of the disproportionately large percentage of foreign-born insane, called attention to a bill now pending in Congress, which provides for an examination of immigrants upon landing: in his opinion, the true remedy for the evil complained of in the shipment of paupers, lunatics, and criminals to America, would be the requirement that emigrants from Europe should furnish evidence to consuls that they have never been convicted of crime, etc., and that, without the certificate of an American consul to this effect, including permission to emigrate, no ship should be allowed to bring emigrants to the United States. [This strikes us as a wholly impracticable suggestion.] He also pointed out that the bill fails to guard the Canada line, notwithstanding the fact that, in 1882, one hundred thousand immigrants came to us by the way of Detroit. Dr. Wilkins, of California, sympathized very strongly with the views of Dr. Pratt, and, in answer to a question, he stated that the proportion of Chinese who become insane is not so great as that of other nationalities.

The debate on training-schools showed that the sentiment of the Association is favorable to them. Dr. Tuttle, of the McLean Asylum, made the interesting observation that, since the establishment of such a school at Somerville, it has been found possible to reduce the pay of attendants, their instruction being regarded as a partial compensation for their services. Dr. Hurd, of Pontiac, Mich., had noticed, at Buffalo, that the attendants who had gone through a two-years' course had acquired sympathy with the methods of the institution, which it is usually so difficult to establish; and he thought that the reflex influence on the physicians was most happy. He desired to emphasize the importance of infirmary wards for the cure of the sick and feeble, for watching the depressed and suicidal, and for the tender personal care of recent cases. Dr. Finch, of Columbus, O., expressed the opinion that training-schools must operate as a test of the fitness and capacity of attendants, and that they will tend to give permanency to the position. Dr. Grissom, of North Carolina, said that "the moral treatment of the insane is paramount to all other treatment," and believed that it would be promoted if attendants were systematically instructed. Some of the speakers saw difficulties in the way, which, Dr. Granger said, "will disappear in the face of earnest efforts made to overcome them."

On the subject of "open doors," or "unlocked wards," the discussion brought out the fact that they are already more common than is generally supposed. There are eight such wards at Kalamazoo, three at Longview, several (on the male side only) at Milledgeville, five at Athens, four at Weston, two at Hamilton (Ontario), seven at Anchorage, some at Columbus; and one third of all the wards of the Asylum for the Chronic Insane at Worcester are open. Had the attendance at this meeting of the Association been larger, doubtless many more would have been reported. In connection with this subject, there was much talk about "paroles" and non-restraint. We feel like thanking Dr. Richardson for his manly declaration that, "when you get a promise from an insane person, he has to be very much beyond self-control if he does not make an effort to keep it." We applaud also his statement that, "in the moral treatment of the insane, the principle which is most important, and which should govern, is that we ought to attempt, above all things, to recover for the patient his self-control, by utilizing what self-control he has remaining." Dr. Powell said: "The more liberty we give our patients, the better." Yet he probably coincided in opinion with Dr. Miller, that "there are patients who would not be benefited by too much liberty"; and with Dr. Grissom, that, "each patient is, to a great extent, a law unto himself." But the tone of the remarks by the majority of the speakers indicated a great advance, during the past ten years, in the direction of the abolition of needless restraints. Airing-courts are now generally condemned. The testimony of Dr. Wilkins as to paroled patients was, that "the sexes never mix." Dr. Richardson remarked that, in ten years, he had never known an accident to occur from that cause. The basal principle of the system of non-restraint (which means the *least possible* restraint) was well expressed by Dr. Palmer: "If we trust our patients, we find that the confidence reposed in them stimulates their self-control." On the other hand, the practice of resorting freely to mechanical means, either by restraint or seclusion, destroys the usefulness of attendants, who learn to rely upon them, and become less watchful and attentive. Dr. Finch mentioned that he had tried the plan of having patients walk long distances—sometimes eight or ten miles—both in the forenoon and afternoon, with good effect; these walks produce some fatigue, and those who take them sleep better in consequence.

We have read the account of this meeting with great satisfaction. We believe that it is likely to prove more fruitful of actual results in the direction of progress in the near future than any meeting of the Association which has occurred for many years.

THE CONVICT LABOR QUESTION IN ILLINOIS.

Both political parties in the State of Illinois have endorsed, in their platforms, the proposed constitutional amendment on the subject of prison labor.

The Democrats, who met on the 26th of August, led off with the following declaration :

> We favor the enactment of such laws as will effectually prohibit convict labor from coming in competition with honest laborers, and we especially commend to the voters of this State the ratification of the constitutional amendment on this subject submitted at the coming election.

The Republicans, on the 1st of September, adopted the following :

> We recognize the injustice in forcing the competition of contract prison labor upon honest labor of the country, and urge upon our legislators the enactment of such laws as will prevent it ; and we favor the adoption of the constitutional amendment on this subject at the coming election.

And now for the amendment alluded to, which will be adopted or rejected by the people at the polls next November :

> *Resolved*, That hereafter it shall be unlawful for any penitentiary or other reformatory institution in the State of Illinois to let by contract to any person, or persons, or corporations, the labor of any convict confined within said institution.

It would seem that the adoption of the amendment ought logically to follow the action of these two representative assemblies.

The ground, however, on which its ratification is advocated is unsound and untenable. Both parties lay stress on the fact that convict labor comes in *competition* with free labor outside of the prison, and imply that, if the contract system of employing labor were abolished, this competition would cease. But the only way in which to put an end to the competition between prison labor and that of honest workingmen is to abolish *prison labor*, whether under the contract system or any other. Both parties know that this is so ; neither the one nor the other believes it to be practicable or right that convicts should be idle while in prison, or employed at unproductive labor. It is impossible therefore to respect the sincerity of either party in the action taken by them respectively ; and there is a bare possibility that the perception, by intelligent voters, of this double-dealing on the part of their political leaders, may induce them to reject the amendment, in spite of the endorsement which it has apparently received.

On the other hand, politicians do in fact follow public opinion, as they understand it—either that of an actual majority, or, as in this case, the opinion of a clique who are believed to hold the balance of power between parties and are therefore in a position to decide an election.

That a large body of working-men believe themselves to be injured by the competition of contract prison labor, (whether their belief is well or ill founded), is undeniable. This belief arises from the prices at which contracts are known to be let, which are far below those of labor in the market. The probabilities are, that the reason why prison labor does not command a higher price is its want of actual value, in comparison with the labor of honest men, to the buyer. But the working-men do not think so ; they assert that the prices paid are due to combinations, which have the effect of perpetuating the grasp of contractors upon the prisons and preventing any real competition among bidders. We do not agree with them. Nevertheless, this opinion controls, for good or for evil, the political declarations of conventions.

On the other hand, the opposition to competition with free labor by convicts is not confined to working-men. At a meeting of manufacturers in Chicago, an Anti-Contract-Labor Association was formed, which is based on precisely similar considerations, with respect to capital.

The argument in favor of the perpetuation of the contract system in Illinois may be briefly stated : (1) Under the public account system, from 1867 to 1871, the penitentiary failed, by more than $500,000, to be self-sustaining, while it is at present, under the contract system, earning something more than its expenses. (2) The plant and working capital required for conducting successfully the prisons of the State is estimated at $1,000 per prisoner ; if the existing contracts are abolished, the legislature will have to appropriate at least $2,000,000 to take the place of this money now invested in prison manufactures by private persons. (3) It is, in the nature of things, impossible that the business of manufacturing should be equally well managed by State officials, appointed for political reasons and paid inferior salaries, who handle money not their own, as by capitalists personally interested in the profits. (4) The suspicion of dishonesty in the management would be so great, under the public account system, that there would be perpetual scandals and legislative investigations. (5) The real question is not between the contract system and the public account system, but between the contract system and no work at all ; for it would be cheaper to maintain prisoners in idleness than to expend large amounts in unprofitable financial experiments, thus sinking not only the comparatively small sum required to feed, clothe, and guard them, but also the capital invested, which will be sure to be either lost or stolen.

The reply made to these assertions by the spokesmen of the labor organizations is, that prisons are managed, in other States and in other nations, on the public account system, without the disastrous results predicted ; that it is not essential to the fulfilment of the purpose of a prison that it should be self-sustaining ; that convict labor does not bring a fair price, and that all labor is degraded by having to compete with it on unequal terms ; that the best protection against crime is abundance of work at remunerative wages, and that the forcing down of wages is a cause of crime ; but they deny that the alternative is contract labor or idleness in prison. They assert that they are in favor of the employment of convicts, but at a fair price, and in a way to conflict as little as possible with other labor. A favorite scheme is the employment of convicts in making public roads, than which there is little or nothing which seems to us more visionary or impracticable.

Both parties to the controversy lose sight of the deeper questions involved. The great majority of writers upon prison discipline, theoretically examined, are agreed that the contract system of prison labor is in principle indefensible. (1) The government, whose laws are violated, alone has power to enforce those laws, and it should not delegate any portion of its direct responsibility to any other agency whatever. (2) The sale of the labor of convicts to outside parties is in effect the sale of the convicts themselves ; whatever limitations may be placed upon the power of the contractor over them, the status of the prisoner is that of a slave. (3) Labor is an element of prison discipline, an essential part of the treatment of the prisoner for his reformation ; its character and amount should be regulated by the needs of the prisoner himself, and not by considerations of pecuniary profit. (4) Profitable prison contracts have the effect of making it the interest of certain individuals, usually possessed of considerable political influence, that the number of criminals convicted should be as large as possible, and that they should be sentenced for long terms. (5) Ordinarily (though there is no rule without exceptions), the presence of a contractor involves more or less division of authority in the management of the prison ; sometimes the authority of the warden is in fact subordinated to that of the contractor, who, by force of superior intelligence and power of will, or by his social position and political relations, dominates over him ; always, the presence of the contractor's men is an injury to the prison and to the prisoners. (6) The contract system leads to the adoption of the objectionable method known as "overwork." (7) Under that system, instead of the public being informed as to the actual amount of profit or loss

resulting from prison labor, it can have no knowledge on the subject, for the reason that this is the private affair of the contractor, which it might hurt him to have made known. (8) The conversion of prisons into great manufacturing establishments, conducted for pecuniary profit, promotes their undue expansion and overgrowth; it is universally conceded that when the number of prisoners passes a certain limit, the opportunities of personal acquaintance with and influence over prisoners, on the part of the warden, are so limited as to be practically obliterated, and his proper work has to be delegated to subordinates, or is not done at all. (9) The ideal of a warden's qualifications and responsibilities, under the contract system, is a false ideal. (10) There is no difference in principle between the contract system and the lessee system; the difference is only in degree; and if one is condemned, the other can not be justified.

It must not be supposed that the discussion of the prison question in Illinois is at all general. Too little interest is taken in it, too little is known about it, for that. Not even the newspapers pay much attention to it. The editor of an influential daily asked us the other day: "What *is* the piece-price plan?" The amendment would never have been thought of, much less submitted, had it not been for a dead-lock in the Senate on a prison-labor bill the night before the adjournment of the last General Assembly; and this was hit upon as an expedient to get rid of that, so that the business of the session might be brought to a conclusion. At the same time, the drift of public sentiment throughout the country is adverse to the contract system, which is probably doomed. It is worthy of remark that the Illinois contractors—or some of them—publicly declare that they would be glad to see the system abolished, provided that its abolition is universal, and not confined to a few States. Our hope is that the agitation which must ensue will end in the education of the public in favor of a better prison system. Meanwhile, we must look, in case the amendment carries, for a senseless refusal, by the legislature, to make sufficient appropriations for the conduct of the prisons of Illinois on the public account system, and after that for financial disaster in their management. Our faith is that of Tennyson:

> Oh yet we trust that somehow good
> Will be the final goal of ill.

In the present complications, we see the operation of that wonderful logic of events which insures that every wrong shall in time work out its own punishment, and any postponement of such punishment can only be temporary. The prospect, therefore, which so alarms the apologists of the contract system, has not the terrors for us which it might have, if we did not regard disaster of some description as the ultimate and inevitable consequence of the ignorance, stupidity, and selfishness which have been a secret blight upon our entire prison system as it exists to-day.

Mr. Carroll D. Wright, chief of the National Bureau of Labor, at Washington, has entered upon an investigation of the question of labor in prisons, under any form, in its relations to labor outside. In the circular of instructions to agents of the Bureau (which lies under our eyes as we write), he defines the four systems of prison labor in the United States, as follows:

> In the contract system the contractor employs the convicts at a certain agreed price per day for their labor, the prisoners working under the immediate direction of the contractor or his agents: the institution usually furnishes the power and often the machinery.
>
> In the piece-price system the contractor furnishes to the prison the proper materials in the proper shape for working, and receives from it the manufactured articles at an agreed piece price, the supervision of the work being wholly in the hands of the prison officials.
>
> In the public account system the institution carries on the business of manufacturing like a private individual, buying raw material and converting it into manufactured articles, which are sold in the best available market.
>
> In the lease system the institution leases the convicts to a contractor for a specified sum for a fixed period (usually a year), the lessee undertaking to clothe, feed, care for, and maintain proper discipline among the prisoners, while they perform such labor as may have been determined by the terms of the lease.

Four forms of schedules have been prepared, one for each system of prison labor; but the inquiries are essentially the same in all of them, and include kind, grade, and value of goods made, the number of hours of labor required daily, the number of convicts employed in productive labor, the number of free laborers necessary to perform the same work, and the average daily wages of free laborers. Other questions are: the number of convicts idle, or employed in prison duties, the aggregate number, their average age, the average length of sentences, the amount received by convicts for overwork, the receipts and expenses of the institution. Some special questions are asked, where the contract or lessee system prevails.

The circular directs agents, after having secured the information called for by the schedule, to pay attention to the following points:

1. The influence that the labor of convicts has upon free labor.
2. The influence of the system in vogue upon the criminal.
3. The general conditions under which work is carried on.

We hope for good results from this inquiry, principally on the ground of our great faith in Mr. Wright's ability and integrity. We have little faith in the ability of such agents as he will be able to employ, who have no special knowledge of the prison question, and to whom the whole subject will have the mystery of novelty, to answer intelligently and correctly his interrogations as to the influence of prison labor and prison systems upon prisoners or upon free labor outside; nor do we believe that they will elicit much that is of value from others with whom they may hold conversation upon the subject. He might about as well put these questions to a vote in a town meeting.

We doubt the exact correctness of his definition of the lease system. At least we know of leases which do not come within it. Neither are we sure that he is quite right in saying that under the piece-price system the "contractor" furnishes, etc. Is there any contractor under the piece-price plan? If there is, how is this system exempt from the prohibition in certain States against contracting the labor of prisoners? It strikes us that in all these definitions Mr. Wright has entered too much into detail as to arrangements which are not necessarily a part of the system.

Under the contract system, the labor of prisoners is hired out at so much a day; under the piece-price plan at so much a piece; under the public-account system it is not hired out at all. Properly speaking, these are the only three systems of prison labor: the lease system is not a system. It may, however, be regarded as one form of the contract system, in which, instead of being hired by the day, the prison and the prisoners are delivered over bodily to a contractor who bargains for the whole or none, and takes the business clean out of the hands of the State, subject to such inspection as the State may see fit to institute, in order to compel him to live up to the terms of his agreement. But the terms of a lease may vary indefinitely.

LEGISLATION ON INSANITY.

In the series of articles under this title which we have printed in the RECORD, we have attempted to impress upon the minds of our readers two facts—that insanity differs from other diseases, in that it frequently renders it necessary, for the protection of the patient or of the public, that its victim should be deprived of his liberty or of the control of his affairs; and that, on the other hand, it is not to be confounded with crime. Commitment to an institution for the insane, therefore, is properly a judicial proceeding, but it is in no sense a criminal proceeding. Two errors, of an opposite nature, are discoverable in the laws and usages

which prevail, in the matter of lunacy commitments, in our several States : some States permit patients to be deprived of their liberty without the intervention of a court ; while others assimilate proceedings in lunacy so closely to the forms of criminal trial as to create a false impression as to the real nature of insanity, and operate as an obstacle to early treatment of the insane, which is so essential to their recovery. We have endeavored to show that every application for the commitment of any person to an institution for the insane should be passed upon by a court, but that the court proceedings are purely of the nature of an inquest. In our last article we began the discussion of the details of procedure, which include : application for an inquisition, notice to the patient of such application, an order by the court providing for an inquisition, steps to secure the attendance of witnesses, the reduction of the medical testimony to writing, and the order for the disposition of the patient.

Having said all that we have to say with reference to the application, we remark that notice should in all cases be given to the patient of the initiation of legal steps to determine his mental condition.

The laws of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, Pennsylvania, Georgia, Michigan, Colorado, and New Mexico make more or less provision for notice : but in some of these States it is only required to be given to the overseers of the poor, in order to enable them to resist a proceeding the effect of which may be to create a charge against the pauper fund ; and in others only where the patient is possessed of property and the object of the proceeding is the appointment of a guardian or conservator.

We do not see why proceedings to deprive a man of the control of his person should be less formal than those to deprive him of the control of his property. Nor do we see why the overseers of the poor should be given the right to resist his commitment to an insane asylum, in the interest of economy, and he himself be denied this right, in the interest his personal liberty.

If it is said that it is absurd to notify a lunatic, the answer is, that until the proceeding is concluded we do not know whether its subject is a lunatic or not. The purpose of judicial proceedings is to guard against the commitment of persons alleged to be in a condition which requires that they shall be deprived of their liberty, but who are not. In the case of a raving maniac, the serving of notice would be a mere form ; but there are cases in which a patient would be enabled to make resistance to the proceeding, if notified, and under no circumstances should he be deprived of this right.

But, on general principles, apart from any question of legal rights and their protection, it is a well-known fact that an insane man should never be deceived or imposed upon for any reason whatever. The reports of superintendents of hospitals and asylums for the insane are full of complaints that patients are brought to them under false pretences, such as that they are going to a summer watering-place, etc., and often they do not know that they are in an institution until after their friends have left them there. The effect upon themselves is disastrous ; the sense of wrong done to them by those in whom they supposed that they could place confidence is irritating and depressing ; and they not unfrequently imagine the officers of the institution to have been parties to a conspiracy of which they are the victims, which destroys the influence of the physician over them for good. Now if this is true, and they must, for their own sake, be told in advance where they are going, after the inquest and order of commitment, why hesitate to tell them before the inquest precisely what their friends propose and the reason for it. The excitement which may result is not likely to be any greater or more injurious in the one case than in the other.

If the patient is not in a condition to understand what is said to him, so that notice is impossible, at least notice should be served upon those nearest him, which might be regarded as a formal compliance with the statute, and authorized by it.

But, leaving this point, which is less vital than many others, we proceed to take up the question : Should the inquest be held by the court itself, in public ? or may this duty be properly delegated to a commission appointed by the court, whose report serves as a basis for whatever action may be taken by the court in the case ?

The practice of different States varies in this regard. Inquest by the court itself is more common, but inquest by a commission is authorized in Connecticut, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Georgia, Wisconsin, Montana, and New Mexico.

In case of inquest by the court, two points are to be considered : should the inquest be at the usual place of holding court, or may it be held at the residence of the patient ? and should it be by the judge, or by a jury ?

Attention may be here called to the fact that the word jury is more or less ambiguous, since it is used in two different senses. A constitutional jury, for the trial of a criminal case, means "twelve men *ex vi termini*," and Bouvier defines trial by jury to be "that form of trial by which the facts are determined by twelve men impartially selected from the body of the country." But a commission is also called a jury, as when a jury is appointed to assess benefits and damages ; for instance, in the opening of a street or road. The grand jury consists of twenty-four men. In several States, it is expressly provided by statute that the jury, to pass upon the sanity of an alleged lunatic, shall consist of some other number than twelve. In Illinois, Indiana (where inquest is had before a justice of the peace), Kansas, New Mexico, Mississippi and Texas, it is six ; in Montana, it is three. It is often a matter of doubt in which sense the word "jury" is employed in the statute authorizing the commitment of lunatics to the custody of the superintendent of an institution for the insane—as it is in other cases. The supreme court of Illinois has held that "trial by jury is only required on issues of fact in civil and criminal cases, in courts of justice, which is not understood to embrace the case of a mere assessment of damages or value made out of court." We are very strongly of the opinion that an inquest in lunacy is not a civil or criminal case in court, that in the vast majority of such inquests there is no issue, and that, as a rule, they are more properly and satisfactorily made out of court rather than in it. We therefore think that the opinion of the supreme court of Illinois applies as truly to them as it does to the valuation of improvements by three commissioners.

In our remarks on this subject, acccordingly, when we speak of a jury, we mean any body of men other than the judge, irrespective of their number, to whom it is left by law to decide the question of the alleged lunatic's mental state, with the single reservation that this jury or commission, whichever it may be, is required by law to sit in court, under the presidence of the judge, as in any trial.

The law may provide for the impanelling of a jury in all cases, as in Illinois, Kentucky, and Wyoming ; or it may give to the patient the right to demand a jury, as in Pennsylvania, Georgia, Wisconsin, Colorado, Montana, and Washington territory ; or it may empower the judge to call a jury at his discretion, as in Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Michigan, Missouri, Tennessee, and Alabama. Or it may require that a jury shall be summoned in certain specified cases, which is done by the statutes of New York, Indiana, Kansas, Wyoming, Montana, New Mexico, Texas, Mississippi, and Arkansas. The difference in practice here alluded to is a striking illustration of the necessity for discussion of the fundamental principles which underlie legislation as to the treatment to be accorded to the insane. Between a law which forbids the commitment of a lunatic

without the verdict of a jury, and that which allows the commitment of a lunatic without even the certificate of a physician that he is insane, a wide gulf exists—a gulf which should be filled. One or the other must be unjust and injurious.

But we must defer further observations on this subject, for want of space, until our next issue.

A SUPERINTENDENT'S PERILS.

There is something fascinating in danger. Next to being in peril one's self it is delightful to hear of danger successfully evaded by another. Danger is the spice of life.

One chapter has yet to be written upon this theme, however—the dangers which encompass the superintendent of a public institution. Unfortunately, they are not at all of a romantic order, with the single exception of the possibility that a prison warden or physician of an insane asylum may be deprived of his life at an unexpected moment by some emotional crank of the criminal or non-criminal class.

Some of these dangers are tolerably well known to superintendents, and give them more or less constant anxiety.

First on the list, of course, is the chance of being removed from office, or, what is almost as bad, having one's salary cut down. But this is too commonplace to deserve mention.

A more disagreeable probability is that of having at some time to face a public investigation, on account of charges of neglect of duty or malfeasance in office. However conscientious or capable a superintendent may be, he is perpetually exposed to an attack from one of three sources—discharged inmates, discharged employés, or the newspapers.

The worst of it is, that no superintendent knows exactly how he might come out of such an investigation. "Be thou as chaste as ice, as pure as snow, thou shalt not escape calumny." Even though the breath of calumny may not assail the superintendent personally, yet he is held to such a responsibility for all that happens in his institution, whether he ever heard of it before or not, (for ought he not to have known it, or to have taken measures to prevent the possibility of its occurrence?) that his reputation as a competent officer may be blasted in a moment.

None of us would care, probably, to have all the privacy of our lives destroyed, and every occurrence and conversation which happens beneath the shelter of our own roof published by a sensational press and discussed on all the street corners.

A superintendent lives perpetually in public. Every institution is a hot-bed of gossip. His anxiety lest something should be done by some officer to some inmate or by some inmate to some other inmate, which would give rise to scandal, is enormous and at times almost unbearable.

But these are not the perils which we have in mind. We are thinking rather of those which are perhaps less actively present to his imagination.

We refer to the insidious operation upon human nature of the possession of extraordinary power.

Within its sphere, no power upon earth is much more autocratic than that of a superintendent. True, he is subject to law; but the law is often vague in its terms, and it does not enforce itself. He is also subject to his board of managers or directors. But his board usually has unlimited confidence in him, very little actual familiarity with his work, and possibly no ability to criticise it intelligently. It listens to his suggestions and adopts them; it accepts his explanations, defends him against all attacks, and in glorifying him commends itself. As a unit gains in value by placing ciphers at its right hand, so does a superintendent, in some instances at least, find his power augmented in proportion to the number of his trustees, their wealth, their social position, and their political influence. They stand between him and the public, with their faces to the public and their backs to himself. To any other form of supervision superintendents as a rule object, particularly if any body stands between them and the public in the reverse position, with its back to the public and its eyes upon the institution.

It is, of course, inside the institution that the superintendent is omnipotent. Every detail of its management is under his control. He has, or should have, the right to appoint and discharge his subordinates; he regulates the expenses; he issues his orders and enforces them. The comfort, the health, the happiness, we had almost said the morals, of both the inmates and the employés, depends very largely upon his fitness for his position.

His first danger is that he will not appreciate the responsibility which accompanies and grows out of such power.

In the next place, he is liable to be deceived as to the actual limits of his power—to suppose that that is personal to himself, which belongs to his position; or else to imagine that because deference is paid to his opinions and wishes in the institution, he is entitled to equal deference in the world outside.

It is very curious to observe the influence which official position of any kind has in developing the vice of undue self-esteem. It argues unusual strength of character in any man suddenly elevated to a post which implies special knowledge and capacity, for its proper administration, if he does not deceive himself into the supposition that the requisite knowledge and ability come, as a matter of course, with the necessity for them. Then follows contempt for the opinions and utterances of all who do not hold similar official position. Class feeling on the part of those who do, leads them to defend him in this assumption, except in so far as he may claim superiority to them. A physician may have made the study of nervous diseases his life-work, and may know his subject thoroughly, but his opinion must not be allowed to weigh against that of a country doctor who has left his practice within the past month or six weeks to take charge of a hospital for the insane. Or a student of criminal jurisprudence and of prison discipline, who has spent years in the investigation of the history of codes and of their application to criminals in all parts of the world, must be silent, in presence of the warden of a penitentiary, who, before his appointment, was unknown except as a ward politician, and who has never, since his appointment, read a book on prison discipline, nor visited any other prison than his own. The result of this narrowness of feeling is, that organizations composed exclusively of officials resist for the most part, the introduction of ideas which do not originate with themselves; they rather resent the suggestions of those whom they do not regard as members of the profession; and their conservatism is so dense, sometimes, that it amounts to stagnation.

Against this tendency the superintendent who wishes to maintain the breadth and freedom which pertain to a manly character, needs firmly to brace himself.

The fiction of superior qualification for his work, on a superintendent's part, is occasionally so transparent, that the man himself has a more or less vague consciousness of it. When that is the case, he may be seen to surround himself with men inferior to himself, or he manifests an unreasonable jealousy of his subordinates, or shows a disposition to exclude from contact with the inmates and employés as much as possible those who might inquire too closely into his methods of administration. He talks in metaphor. He is lavish in the use of technical terms. He wants to be trusted implicitly, and complains of the unfounded suspicions of the general public. He sees a possible purpose to assail him, in every innocent question. He makes a great display of his authority to those beneath him, or to outsiders, but is obsequious to those who are in authority over him. When this is his state of mind, and these are its manifestations, he is in great danger of making unnecessary enemies for himself, and of having his distrust of the public repaid with interest.

Perfect candor is the mark of sincerity and freedom from guile ; the slightest appearance of a secretive temper in a public officer at once arouses suspicion.

The self-esteem of a superintendent is at other times apparent in his desire unduly to enlarge the sphere of his responsibilities, either by an extension of the institution or by going outside of his natural and appropriate work, in order to take part (for instance) in the management of party politics, or to control the action of a legislature. Probably it could be demonstrated, were it worth while, that the drafting of laws requires a knowledge of general affairs and of varied relations in life, which most superintendents have not had the opportunity, by actual contact with the world, to acquire. Or it may be that a superintendent imagines himself possessed of information on all subjects which come within the purview of the organization controlled by him, and so he disregards the advice of specialists in architecture, engineering, etc., in order to carry out his own crude notions of what he wants, at extra cost for an unsatisfactory result. The forms of self-love are endlessly varied. Still another form is self-indulgence, the gratification of his personal tastes in furnishing and decoration, or at the table, or in display of some other description, in painful contrast with the forlorn and wretched condition of those committed to his care.

But enough of this. An entirely different temptation to which he is exposed is, that of making an arbitrary, harsh, or excessive use of his power.

> O it is excellent
> To have a giant's strength, but tyrannous
> To use it like a giant.

Of course a tyrant cannot be expected to be aware of his own domineering temper. But every one about him feels it. And it is easily recognized by a visitor to an institution, who sees that the outward deference to authority is excessive, or that obedience to orders (under observation) is unnaturally prompt. A superintendent is in constant peril of undue susceptibility to the sweet intoxication of flattery. He lives in the atmosphere of a court, where all that it is not thought best to let him know is sedulously concealed from him, and shrewd employés "crook the supple hinges of the knee, that thrift may follow fawning." He is liable to be imposed upon, to withhold his confidence where he should give it, to bestow it where it is undeserved, to retain those whom he should discharge, and to discharge those whom he should retain.

He needs a revised version of the litany : From self-indulgence and self-esteem, from narrowness and prejudice, from display and assumption, from all unkindness and oppression, from deceit and dishonesty, and from all deceivers and flatterers with their lips, Good Lord deliver me.

ELECTRIC LIGHTING AND AËRIAL WIRES.

The caption to this article is the title given by Mr. C. C. Haskins, City Electric Inspector in Chicago, to a paper read by him at the seventeenth anniversary of the Fire-Underwriters' Association of the Northwest. A very brief abstract of it will be of use to superintendents of institutions which use the electric light in either of its two forms.

The method of producing the electric current by means of a dynamo is virtually the same in the incandescent as in the arc system ; but the current produced by the former is less fierce than the other—it is of "lower pressure," and is far more easily controlled and kept in the straight and narrow path than its wicked partner, the arc current. The wires, too, are differently placed ; they are left open at the extremity of the circuit, and the current has no way to get from one wire to the other except through the lamps.

The line which conveys the electric current must be perfectly insulated, that is, separated by means of some poor conductor, from contact with any thing which leads to the ground or to any other line.

The wire must be of sufficient size to carry the current without sensibly heating, in consequence of the resistance offered to its passage ; if it gets hot, it is too small.

Where the wires leave the dynamo, they should be not less than ten or twelve inches apart. The nearer they are together, the greater is the peril of some accidental connection between them. Such a connection may be formed by a wet cloth, or by any metallic substance.

There is also the peril of accidental connection with the ground, through gas or water-pipes, wire-lathing, outside wires, metal cornices and posts, etc. Even a wet wall, a damp board, or a dish-cloth, might, under favorable circumstances, produce a conflagration at a point half a mile distant from the cause of offence.

Ground connections are in the nature of leaks.

In incandescent lighting, safety-strips are essential. They are placed at every point where there is a branch wire, in the direct path of the current. Their carrying capacity is less than that of the wire, for they are made of some metal of higher resistance, which melts at a lower temperature. They are graduated for the current which they are designed to carry, and are usually numbered for the number of lights which they are intended to protect. It is the custom of some companies to put the safety-strip in the socket of the lamp. This is on the principle of fun for the boys, but death to the frogs : the lamp may be saved, in case of excess of current, but the building may burn. It is well enough to put them in the lamp-sockets, but the strip at the junction should not be omitted on any account.

Care should be taken to see that the wires do not run in such a manner or through such places as to admit of an accumulation of dirt, heat, inflammable dust, etc.

The dynamo should be as thoroughly insulated as any part of the line, and it should be placed on a foundation selected and arranged so as not to endanger the building by vibration.

Magnetism is always present in a room where there is a dynamo, but this force is harmless to persons and property, except good watches, to which it is ruinous.

Long wires, exposed to atmospheric electric changes, which might possibly overcharge them, should be protected by what is termed a lightning arrester.

As a matter of protection to firemen on long circuits, it is not a bad idea to place at each building or block where the wires enter a cut-off switch, though, if they are properly placed, this is hardly necessary. The switch referred to differs essentially from a cut-out switch, which merely puts out the lights, but does not separate the building from the generator.

No plant should be permitted to run until a thorough inspection has been made by a competent electrician, with power to enforce his suggestions. Such inspectors might be employed by the fire-insurance companies.

No wire for electrical purposes should be allowed above ground. While these are permitted to swing in the air, contact with other wires is almost certain, and where the latter are telephone, telegraph, or other grounded lines, the result might be disastrous.

During twenty odd years of eventful toil in the great city, I never found a depth of misery so deep, a poverty so rank, a crime so atrocious, a despair so black, that some humble follower of Christ did not find it out. Into all holes and corners of wretchedness where vice and poverty, like twin wolves, had hunted down their prey, the policeman and the reporter always found the hooded sister or the missionary ahead of them. They were the first to come. They were the last to go. They stayed and put up their supplications when all else on earth had forsaken the wretch. They followed him to the prison cell, they stood beside him on the gallows, and they never forgot, in all the obloquy of sin and the cry of human vengeance, the eternal brotherhood of man. And they wanted no pay, and got no applause. They were doing their Master's work.—NYM CRINKLE (A. C. Wheeler).

THE BLIND IN GREAT BRITAIN.

From Turner and Harris' "Guide to Institutions and Charities for the Blind in the United Kingdom," * we glean some interesting information. It appears that there are in Great Britain three distinct forms of aid to the blind—resident schools, workshops, and charitable societies or institutions.

Of resident institutions for the education of the blind, there are 25 in England, 4 in Scotland, and 5 in Ireland; or 34 in all. The towns in which they are found are: Bath (2), Birmingham, Brighton, Bristol, Devonport, Exeter, Leeds, Liverpool (2), London (4), Manchester, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Norwich, Nottingham, Plymouth, Sheffield, Southsea, Swansea, Wolverhampton, Worcester, and York; Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Inverness; Armagh, Belfast, Cork, and Dublin (2). They are usually small institutions, averaging about fifty inmates in each; the largest are in London, at St. George's Fields (180), and Upper Norwood (163); outside of London, at Manchester (120), Birmingham (74), Glasgow (72), and Cork (71). Several of them are not merely schools, but asylums as well: in Edinburgh, for instance, inmates may remain for life. A few of them take day-scholars; at Leeds the charge to such pupils, for education and dinner, is 4*d.* (eight cents) per week. The price of tuition and board is generally low, averaging perhaps one dollar a week, in American money. St. George's Fields is free. At the Worcester College for the Blind, a charge of from £60 to £100 is made. Pupils are received at this college from seven years of age, and are divided into juniors and seniors: seeing pupils are also admitted, the sons of clergymen being preferred. The Normal College for the Blind, at Upper Norwood, is designed to provide a resident school for the general education of the blind, the training of teachers (especially of the blind), and instruction in the theory and practice of music and in piano-forte tuning.

The number of work-shops not connected with resident institutions is: in England 18, at Bradford, Bristol and Clifton, Bolton, Cardiff, Carlisle, Cheltenham, Greenwich, Hull, Leicester, Liverpool, London (2), Manchester, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Peckham, Preston, Stockport, and Sunderland; in Scotland 1, at Dundee; and in Ireland 1, at Belfast. Some of these engage in home teaching as well.

The list of charities for the blind numbers 42. They are not all exclusively for the blind, but most of them are. Several are funds in the form of bequests, the income of which is paid by trustees to the beneficiaries. Others are asylums for the aged blind or for blind persons belonging to certain trades or professions. Some of them grant pensions. One is a blind-visiting society. A few perform any service for the blind which is in their power, including small loans, if needed, and the finding of employment. Two deserve special mention—the British and Foreign Blind Association, 33 Cambridge Square, London, W., and Gardner's Trust for the Blind. The latter has a fund of £300,000, the interest of which is applied, at the discretion of the committee, in any way which they think will be of service to the blind as individuals or as a class: the number of beneficiaries is about 400: they grant both pensions and scholarships. The object of the Blind Association is to discover the best methods of educating and employing the blind, and to secure their general adoptlon; also to produce school apparatus, books, music, maps, etc. A rather singular charity is known as the York Emmanuel, and its purpose is to benefit ministers, and wives or widows and children of ministers, who are blind or idiotic.

In addition to the above, a list of 79 "home teaching societies for the blind" is given: there appears to be a parent or general society of this title, whose address is New Bridge Street, Blackfriars, London.

About thirty classes for the blind are maintained by the London School Board.

* Published by Simpkin, Marshall, & Co., London, 1884.

Books are published for the blind, by the Glasgow Asylum (Roman capitals, Alston's type); St. George's Fields, London, (Roman); Park Street, Bristol, (Roman); The Society for Providing Cheap Literature for the Blind, 33 College Street, Worcester, (Full letter Roman); Dr. Moon, 104 Queen's Road, Brighton, (Moon's full letter Roman, modified and arbitrary); British and Foreign Blind Association, London, (Braille); London Society for Teaching the Blind to Read, St. John's Wood School for the Blind, Upper Avenue Road, Regent's Park, N. W., (Lucas's stenographic); British and Foreign Bible Society, (the Bible, in Moon and Braille); Mitford's, Cheltenham, (Roman characters placed vertically); J. Gall, Niddry Street, Edinburgh, (full letter, angular Roman); and Frere's, 27 Red Lion Square, London, W. C., (phonetic, arbitrary).

The acts of Parliament relating to the blind are: the poor law amendment act of 3d and 4th William IV., cap. 76, sec. 56; 25th and 26th Victoria, cap. 43, (see secs. 6, 7, 10); 31st and 32d Victoria, cap. 122, secs. 13 and 42. The 30th and 31st Victoria, cap. 6, sec. 5, and cap. 106, sec. 21, relate to the metropolis only.

The following tables gives certain particulars for the year 1883:

Item.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Total.
Number of blind taught and employed:				
In resident schools .	1,298	161	166	1,625
In workshops . .	528	54	43	625
In workshops attached to resident institutions	254	276	—	530
Total	2,080	491	209	2,780
Number benefitted by charities:				
By pensions . . .	2,923	—	—	2,923
By other forms . .	392	6	27	425
Class of teachers employed:				
Blind	9	—	1	10
"Sighted" . . .	—	5	—	5
Both	25	4	1	30
Sales	£72,865	39,565	4,682	117,111

The total annual receipts of resident institutions and workshops, not from sales, including endowments, donations, subscriptions, and legacies, (but not, we think, charges for board and tuitions), were about $430,000; and the receipts of other charities for the blind were $180,000 or $185,000. It is to be understood that the British government does not, as we do, support institutions for the education of the blind from the public treasury. They are maintained by private benevolence.

The number of blind in the United Kingdom is believed to be about 30,000: on this basis, more than one fifth of the blind population is in receipt of aid of some description, to a greater or less extent, averaging in pecuniary value about $100 a year each.

Since the year 1870, there have been held the following conferences to consider the affairs of the blind:

In 1876, a special committee of the Charity Organization Society, after forty meetings, published a most useful report on the subject.

In 1878, the School Board of London held a conference on the instruction of blind children, a report of which was published.

In 1883, a conference of managers and teachers of blind institutions and friends of the blind assembled at the Yorkshire School for the Blind, on the occasion of the Wilberforce Memorial Jubilee.

In 1884, a meeting was called at Grosvenor House, by the Duke of Westminster, to discuss the question of an application for a royal commission to consider the condition of the blind.

AFTER-CARE OF BLIND PUPILS.

It is high time for us to introduce the system of looking after the old pupils (of institutions for the blind) which has proved so successful in Saxony and other parts of Germany. I have known of this system for about sixteen years, and the necessity for its adoption here (in England) is pressing itself more and more strongly upon me. I have lately returned from Dresden, where I went with a view of personally investigating the subject, and the following is a short statement of some of the principal facts. All blind children who are not idiots are admitted. They enter the primary school, which is in the country, then pass to the central institution at Dresden, and, if basket-makers, go from thence to a work-shop belonging to the institution for a couple of years. At finishing their training they go home to their village, or, if their home is not suitable, some other place is found for them ; in either case a resident is found, who promises to look after and assist the blind person with advice and recommendations, and to keep the director informed of the wants and habits of his charge. Generally the clergyman, mayor, doctor, or some other influential person is selected for this office. A fund for pupils who have left the institution has been accumulated by three generations of directors, and the yearly income is now £1,500. This is partly derived from gifts and legacies, and partly from the earnings of the pupils when in the institution. Four fifths of their earnings go to the fund, and one fifth to the pupil for pocket-money, or to be placed in the savings-bank. When a pupil leaves, he generally has a few pounds in the savings-bank, and he receives an outfit of clothes and tools from the fund, together with materials, and a little ready money to make a start with. As a rule, in a year or two he gets sufficient work to maintain himself, or nearly so. There are, however, many indifferent workers, who can only partially support themselves ; as long as these work to the best of their power, and behave properly, they receive assistance, so that they are in no case obliged to apply to the parish. If they are idle, or take to begging, or behave badly in any other way, they lose all assistance from the fund ; this, however, appears not to occur often. There are now 300 old people, who are being visited and assisted from the institution, and as the income of the fund amounts to £1,500 a year, it follows that they receive on an average about five pounds each, some more, some less, according to their needs, but this assistance enables all to live without extraneous help. The director is, as it were, the father of a numerous family, and his time is almost entirely taken up in looking after them ; he travels about and visits them, and whenever any thing occurs which his representative on the spot can not settle, he goes down and arranges it. I travelled some days with him, in the beautiful valleys on the north side of the mountain range, separating Saxony from Bohemia ; the district visited was selected by myself, as the director said that he should not like me to suppose that he had picked out the best cases. We visited in all twenty-six cases. The men were basket-makers and rope-makers ; one had a shoe-shop ; the women were chair-caners, knitters, and brush-makers. Some of the basket-makers were well-to-do, selling all they could make themselves, and keeping shops, in which they disposed of fancy baskets and every thing generally found in a basket-shop ; others were very poor, especially the girls, but all were industrious and cheerful. The labor of carrying on such work is very great, but the results are quite worth the trouble.

A rather instructive incident happened some years ago. Some of the smaller States wished their blind to be educated at Dresden, which was done ; but as the fund was only applicable to natives of Saxony, they could not be looked after when they returned home, and although their training was identical with that of their Saxon companions, they invariably failed to maintain themselves, for want of the system of supervision. The cause of this failure was so evident, that the small governments referrd to have lately established the same kind of system as that already described for Saxony. The same method is now followed in Mecklenburgh, in Holstein, in the Rhine Province, at the Jewish School in Vienna, and in one or two other institutions, and with invariably the same result.

Dr. T. ARMITAGE,
Honorary Secretary of the British and Foreign Blind Association.

CAUSES OF DEAF-MUTISM.

In considering the causes of deaf-mutism, Boucheron (*Revue mensuelle de Laryngologie*, No. 4, 1885) shows that naso-pharyngeal diseases form an important factor in the pathogeny of infantile deafness followed by mutism.

The deaf-dumbness developing suddenly after birth is characterized either by the presence of meningitic or epileptiform symptoms, or by an absence of convulsive symptoms, and can therefore be divided into two categories.

In both instances the deafness arises from an anæsthesia of the nerve-filaments, the result of an increased intra-labyrinthine pressure. Subsequently a destruction of the acoustic filaments takes place. Boucheron suggests for it the name of "deafness due to otopiesis," *i. e.*, to pressure within the internal ear.

Experimental studies made upon dogs have led the author to regard occlusion of the sieve-like arrangement within the aqueductus vestibuli, the safety-valve which normally prevents the occurrence of intra-aural pressure, as the most important cause of the latter.

Three forms are spoken of by him, namely : (1) otopiesis pseudo-meningitic, (2) otopiesis pseudo-epileptic, (3) simple otopiesis.

The first form is subdivisible into the inflammatory and the non-inflammatory. Examination of the ear with a mirror generally shows a normal appearance of the external ear and membrana tympani, or the latter retracted simply, the color remaining normal. An exacerbation of the naso-pharyngeal catarrh which is almost always present will, however, often produce a sudden reddening of the membrane, with marked hyperæmia of the handle of the hammer.

Extensive destruction of the membrana tympani and the ossicles, and caries of the temporal bone, are comparatively rarely seen in deaf-mutes. Naso-pharyngeal affections and catarrhs of the Eustachian tubes and middle ears are common among them, and have great effect upon the chief affection by their frequent relapses.

The author very justly declines to regard the deafness occurring in the offspring of consanguineous marriages as a result of race-degeneration, but rather as an additional circumstance of an inherited catarrhal predisposition—a view entirely in harmony with the experience of your reporter. He also believes true congenital deafness to be a much greater rarity than heretofore supposed.

The treatment should, "first of all, have in view the prevention of the formation of a vacuum in the tympanic cavity ; secondly, the restoration of the mobility of the drum-membrane and ossicles, especially the stapes ; thirdly, measures to overcome the inherited catarrhal tendency and the tubal catarrh ; fourthly, stimulation of the anæsthetic labyrinthine nerves ; fifthly, education of the hearing sense, after it has been sufficiently restored to perceive speech ; sixthly, instruction by artificial methods, should no improvement take place or power of hearing prove insufficient." (*Archives of Otology*, vol. xv., p. 96).—Dr. CHAS. H. BURNETT, in *Med. Times.*

THE CUISINE OF THE SICK-ROOM.

If I were asked to enumerate the ingredients and apparatus which are necessary for the cuisine of the sick-room and nursery, I think I could do so very briefly. In addition to the resources of the domestic kitchen and larder, the sick-room kitchen should contain a supply of the following flours : oat, maize, malt, and lentil flours, in a finely pulverized condition and freed from bran. It should be provided with a solution of bicarbonate of soda of known strength : this would be of use to add to milk when necessary, and to assist in the preparation of peptonized articles of food. Next to these would come a reliable pancreatic extract, and a preparation of pepsin or rennet for the production of whey. The associated apparatus should include a thermometer, wherewith the nurse could, when desirable, heat up the cold-made meat-infusions to a proper temperature, and regulate the warmth required in the pre-digestion of food. A double-cased saucepan would form an indispensable item ; this makes an admirable hot-water bath for the preparation of beef-tea and fortified gruels. A pair of scales, glass measures, and a mincing-machine would complete the list. Finally, there should be, for the service of the nurse, a card or sheet containing plain directions for the preparation of the various kinds of liquid food.—Dr. WM. ROBERTS, in *Brit. Med. Journal.*

JAPANESE MALTINE.—Dr. J. C. Berry, of Okoyama, gives the following interesting account of the process of manufacture of *Mizu Ame* in Central Japan :

(1) Malt (*moyashi*). Made by putting barley into a pail with a perforated bottom, and then moistening for two weeks, by which time (varying with the weather) the barley germinates. Spread and dry, rub off the sprouts, winnow, and grind, when it is ready for use.

(2) Of *mochi-gome* (the very glutinous rice from which the *mochi* is made) take one *to* (1 *to* = 10 *sho* = 1,097 cubic inches = $4\frac{8}{4}$ gallons), and cook the rice by steaming in a wooden box until moderately soft. Remove to a pail, and add : malt, 450 *momme* (= $3\frac{3}{4}$ pounds); water, five 2*sho* (= $\frac{8}{8}$ gallons). Then with the hands thoroughly mix the whole, squeezing and crushing the rice until it assumes a hard, jelly-like consistence. Allow it to stand for twelve hours, during which time stir three times. (If the weather is very cold it is covered with straw mats ; if very warm it is kept in a cool place.) Remove, and place in hempen bags, put the bags into a strong box, and press out the liquid with firm pressure. Lastly, evaporate to proper consistence over a slow fire.

I have used *mizu ame* considerably during the last five years, especially in cases where food-medicines are required ; and, after being properly diluted, frequently prescribe it with dialyzed iron and with cod-liver oil I use it more or less on my table as an article of diet, instead of syrup or honey, especially with one of my children, who has a weak stomach. I imagine that its one single advantage over malt or maltine is its more easy digestibility.—*Supplement to Transactions of Sei-I. Kwai.*

REFORMATORY WORK WITH BOYS.

A number of years ago, Mr. Joseph A. Allen published a little volume of reminiscences of his connection with the Massachusetts State Reform School at Westboro, which very few people, probably, have seen, but which is very racy and contains many capital things. The candor with which the truth is told in it, regardless of the previously formed opinions of his readers, is refreshing. According to his story, he found the institution in a difficult condition to handle. It "had been set on fire fourteen times, causing considerable damage, before the great fire of 1859, which destroyed three fourths of the entire building." One of the teachers "had found a revolver requisite to protect himself a few weeks previous" to Mr. Allen's advent. The principal teacher had "been attacked by the boys, and somewhat injured." But the new superintendent resolved to govern, if possible, without corporal punishment, believing that "fear may restrain, but love alone can reform." On telling Samuel J. May of his purpose, that gentleman laughingly replied: "I would let the boys know indirectly that you can lift nine hundred pounds with your bare hands. It will have a good moral influence."

Mr. Allen says:

Admitting that a boy might be benefited by a flogging occasionally, the danger that the officer will punish too much and too often will more than balance the possible good. Contrary to what many think, boys will very rarely report an officer for abusing them. Such boys are generally troublesome, and feel that they deserve some punishment; and they act on the principle that makes us bear the ills we have, rather than fly to those we know not of.

He had a "lodge," a large, comfortable room, where boys could be isolated, and where they could work, if necessary.

I have passed three months without putting a boy into it, and I think a whole year without having one in over-night. Once, having foolishly threatened to put a small boy into it under such circumstances as seemed to require me to do so, I found him at night so nervous and afraid to remain alone, that I determined to occupy the next cell myself, to keep him company. This had an excellent effect upon him and others, showing that the punishment was not vindictive.

His experience, however, was "that officers in sympathy with one method of discipline do not heartily work for another, and that for new measures we require new men"; a principle which applies in institutions for the insane as well as in prisons.

The following observation shows good sense:

Most persons can be influenced through the stomach, and especially the young. It was therefore made a point to have the food as palatable as possible, and not too expensive. It was as good as that of the officers, though with less variety. They had the same bread, vegetables, and meat, but the latter was more simply cooked. This, I am certain, had great influence on the boys. For the same reasons I usually had a suit of clothes from the same cloth as theirs, and wore it about the institution, some one of the boys always making it for me.

He was "strongly of the opinion that play is an important influence for good in any educational system for the young," and joined in their sports himself: "a boy is never troublesome when in a mood for play." The following is his view of the game of marbles:

He who invented this game should have a monument, as a public benefactor. No game is so generally popular as this in its season. It gives skill to the eye and hand, and cultivates fair dealing between boys. It teaches, in a practical way, that "the best man wins." Of course there is sometimes cheating; but if we allowed nothing where there is cheating, no one could trade horses. I used sometimes to give each boy ten marbles in the morning, and tell him to gain all he could honestly, by skilful play. At night I have had boys bring hundreds to me to distribute the next morning. Any dispute about a marble gave the smallest boy standing near a right to it. This put a stop to most of the disputing, and was a popular regulation.

He did not approve of a military drill.

With such boys as were in the reform school, I was certain it would cause trouble. Their belligerent tendencies are already too active, and they need to have developed in them a reverence for human life and a regard for the rights of property, and to be, rather, under the gentle and refining influences, such as music affords.

He never allowed badges of distinction to be worn in the school, to indicate moral character:

Their influence is likely to be as it was in the family of Jacob, when he dressed Joseph differently from his brethren. The best badge for moral worth is the countenance.

He thought little of attempts to run away.

In many institutions boys are punished severely for running away. This is a mistake. It may deter some from making the attempt, but even this is doubtful. Fear, except for immediate consequences, has but little influence. A large number of the boys, after being away for a few hours, will come back of themselves, if they are sure of kind treatment when they return, a much larger number than will be kept from running away by fear of punishment. I found it was not always the worst boys that ran away, but often the best. If boys never ran away, it would prove that no freedom was allowed; if a great many, that the officers were negligent or the building insecure.

Again, he remarks:

After the crops are gathered, in the autumn, when the leaves begin to fall and the birds are starting for a Southern home, then, of all times in the year, the boys desire to run away, good and bad, small and great, all the same. It will take a good deal of ingenuity to direct their attention to other subjects. In the ability to anticipate trouble, and in judicious plans to avoid it, lies the secret of good management. A gentleman at the head of one of our families once came to me to ask what he should do with his boys, as they were continually getting green apples from the trees and eating them, and he feared he should be obliged to bring some back to the main building. I advised him to take his boys to the currant bushes and let them eat all they would, which he did twice. Afterwards he had no trouble with his apples. Thus, by supplying the boys' natural desire for acids in the spring, he saved his apples and kept his boys.

We wish that we could reproduce some of the excellent anecdotes with which the book abounds. But we will content ourselves with two. The first is of his chaplain.

The gentleman occupying the position of chaplain was physically feeble, and unfortunate in being a cripple. Such misfortunes enlist the sympathies of the wise and good; but upon thoughtless boys, such as those at Westboro, they are likely to cause a repetition of the rudeness and irreverence manifested by the forty and two children of Bethel towards the prophet Elisha. A great deal depends upon the personal appearance of a man when addressing an audience, especially of boys; and of all subjects, religion should have every advantage. I am inclined to the opinion that Moses was right when he mentions what should disqualify a man physically for the office of priest. Our chaplain was a Methuselah among the old-school theologians. His favorite subjects were from the Old Testament, such as the story of Jonah swallowed by the whale, and Elisha and the saucy boys. As he always took the most literal view of these stories, and preached upon the subjects, it was sometimes difficult for me to conduct the recitation in my Sunday-school class without conflicting with his expositions. To illustrate: Once, when the lesson was about Jonah, the boys in the class inquired immediately if I believed that story, saying that they did not believe a word of it. I told them I thought we all believed it. I then explained to them the situation of Tarshish and Nineveh. "Now," I said, "when our conscience, which may be called the voice of God, tells us to do a certain thing, and we do not obey, we do just the opposite—we disobey; so Jonah, when told to go to Nineveh, went the opposite way to Tarshish. Then when we do what we know is wrong, we feel badly, and worry over it, and can not sleep, and toss about in bed, and every thing looks dark; so it was with Jonah, who is said to be in a vessel during a storm, tossed about and frightened. When we have done very wrong, we are likely to feel overwhelmed, and, as it were, swallowed up with remorse and grief; and so Jonah is represented as cast into a sea of trouble and swallowed up by a whale. Ignorant and superstitious people are very likely to think that calamities of all kinds are sent by God as punishments for somebody's sin; so the sailors laid the storm to Jonah, and threw him overboard. After a person is overtaken in his sin, and trouble comes, he is likely to see his error and repent; and so it was with Jonah—he came to himself, and prayed for forgiveness. When a person truly repents and makes good resolutions, he soon experiences a kind of happiness, and feels as strong as though he stood upon a rock; so it was with Jonah—he is said to have been thrown upon the solid land. Then, if a person is sincere in his repentance, he will follow the voice of conscience; so Jonah, after he was safe upon the land, went immediately to Nineveh, as he was to do at first." After going through the story something in this way, which pleased them very much, they all said the story was true. For a long time afterwards it was a by-word in the yard, when a boy was behaving badly, to say that he was on the road to Tarshish. In this way I tried to get something useful out of any subject that the chaplain might choose without openly differing with him. In his farewell sermon, in alluding to this style of interpretation, he took occasion to condemn such want of reverence for the Bible, in strong terms. The following is a part of his text: "For I know this, that after my departure shall ravenous wolves enter in, not sparing the flock,'

From this time no resident chaplain was appointed while I was there. The usual daily devotional exercises I conducted, and occasionally I spoke to the boys in chapel on Sunday. At the regular services in the afternoon, clergymen of different denominations, from the neighboring towns, generally officiated, and we had occasionally prominent men from different parts of the State. But it is not the preaching we hear so much as the practice we see, that influences for good; therefore I was much more anxious in regard to the character of my officers, who associated daily with the boys, than for the preaching that occupied their attention for a few moments each Sunday.

The other is of a different nature:

An excellent Quaker gentleman used to visit us occasionally and spend Sunday. He always addressed the boys in the chapel, and after service gave each a present—once a copy of the New Testament, at another time a beautiful card upon which were printed appropriate mottos and hymns. Going into the yard, after chapel, I found the boys had marked the cards, and nearly all, in groups, were quietly playing euchre, making use of the cards in a way our Quaker friend had not anticipated. Some excellent persons might think this an evidence of great depravity, but if they would look from the boys' standpoint the prospect might not be so gloomy.

We quote a few other remarks, which are taken from various parts of the book, but have a certain connection:

The most difficult thing a superintendent has to do is to select assistants adapted to the work required of them. One inefficient officer will more than neutralize the labors of an excellent one. It was interesting to notice the influence the institution exerts upon different officers. Some begin with great enthusiasm and confidence, but soon become discouraged, and grow unsympathetic and harsh. Others grow cunning and tricky, like the boys, and use discipline on the principle that "it takes a rogue to catch a rogue," and that "the end justifies the means." Such officers soon become unreliable, and teach deception by precept and example. I sometimes found an officer using a boy as a spy or detective. This I would never allow, for the officer will soon become neglectful of his duties, and the boy a hypocrite. Women sometimes get too much interested in the work. One of the most self-sacrificing and excellent women was so much interested in the welfare of the boys, that her sympathy for them, in general, passed beyond a philanthropic into a particular interest, more than Platonic, and I found it necessary to limit the practical workings of so excellent a sentiment as "Love the unlovely and care for the uncared-for." Speaking with Dr. Howe on the subject, I learned that some of the best women ever employed in the Blind Asylum he was obliged to discharge for similar reasons.

No one can fully understand all these boys. He may study particular specimens for days and months, as a skilful physician studies a patient in a hospital, but, like him, may never be able to do more than show his good intentions. Still, after months and years of labor, one may find an avenue to the heart, as was found to the mind of Laura Bridgman.

Some teachers feel that boys should be required to beg their pardon, or make public acknowledgment of their faults, before they can be passed over and forgiven. I have no sympathy with such requirements. If a boy can be made to see his fault and feel contrition, I am satisfied. Punishment should always be for the reformation of the individual, and not as an example to others. What I wanted was the individual reformed. Sentences for crime, it seems to me, should not be for a certain time, but for the accomplishment of a certain result—the reformation of the criminal.

If superintendents were selected for our penal institutions as they are for our asylums and hospitals, because of their peculiar fitness for the position, unwise discharging of inmates in one case would not occur oftener than in the others. The hospital is a place for the treatment of physical trouble, an insane asylum of mental, and the prison of moral. No one will deny that the last is of as great importance as the others, and requires in its management as great and as peculiar skill. Yet scarce a thought, it would seem, is given to find the man fitted by nature and education for so difficult a position. What should we think, if men were put in charge of our insane asylums for political reasons? And yet this is often done in our penal institutions and reformatories.

THE INDEFINITE SENTENCE.

The leading principle of the criminal law of Britain, like that of most other countries, is, to deter from crime by awarding punishment for different offenses in proportion to their magnitude.

The objections to this principle appear to be insurmountable. In the first place, it is one which it is impossible to carry out with any thing like accuracy, owing to the infinite variety of circumstances which increase or diminish the guilt appertaining even to the very same act, or which, indeed, make the commission of an apparently small offense really more culpable sometimes than that of a great offense.

Much, no doubt, is done to meet these inequalities by the latitude given to the judge who passes sentence, but this is *pro tanto* an abandonment of the principle on which the laws are constructed.

But even if it were possible to draw up a list of offenses according to their real turpitude and their injury to society, and to prepare a corresponding scale of punishment, it appears to me that it would not be wise to act on such a system.

The object of punishment being the prevention of crime, that punishment can not be well fitted for its purpose which, after its infliction has terminated, allows an offender to be let loose again upon society, without regard to the cause of his offense, or to the fact whether such cause has been removed.

This objection seems fatal to the plan of meting out doses of punishment as cures for specific crimes.

No one thinks of sending a madman to a lunatic hospital for a certain number of days, weeks, or months. We content ourselves with carefully ascertaining that he is unfit to be at large, and that those in whose hands we are about to place him act under due inspection and have the knowledge and skill which afford the best hope for his cure; that they will be kind to him and inflict no more pain than is necessary for his secure custody and the removal of his malady; and we leave it for them to determine when he can safely be liberated.

Perhaps it may ultimately be found by cautious experiment that a somewhat similar process may be safe and expedient in the treatment of criminals, and that, while it is still left to the courts of justice to determine on the guilt or innocence of the accused, and on the necessity of their withdrawal from society, it may be assigned to those entrusted more or less directly with the reformatory treatment to determine the time of release.

Such a mode of proceeding, however, even if attainable, must be approached by slow degrees.

There are several ways in which we might approach the ultimate result on which I have here speculated. One is, to adopt the whole principle in some limited district; another, to give the judges an unlimited power of imprisonment in certain cases, with a view to their assigning such periods of imprisonment as would be long enough to afford all reasonable opportunity for reformation—the pardoning power of the Crown being exercised whenever it should be deemed safe to release the offender before the expiration of his allotted time.

What I would suggest in preference is, that an act should be passed classifying the various criminal offenses and apportioning to each class a maximum amount of imprisonment, with a proviso that in the event of subsequent conviction this maximum should be raised, and that by great steps.

Wide latitude might safely be given to the judges in the period of imprisonment assigned to each class. And should this experiment succeed, and the principle on which it is founded gain thereby a certain amount of public confidence, such discretion might be enlarged; and again, after a time, the judges might be empowered, with the concurrence, perhaps, of a jury, to substitute for a definite period of imprisonment, committal, in certain cases, until those entrusted with the reformatory treatment (acting under the superintendence before indicated) should be of opinion that the offender could be safely liberated. After another interval, if it should appear that the plan, in its extended form, still worked satisfactorily, another step might be taken. And thus, through many years of cautious trial, the system, modified and corrected by experience, might eventually be brought into full operation.

It is, perhaps, natural that Englishmen should regard with a jealous eye the introduction of a power to subject any of their countrymen, however criminal, to an imprisonment not limited in the ordinary way to a certain number of months or years, and it is fitting that such a change should be gradual, and that its operation should be carefully watched. The feeling from which such jealousy arises was manifested on the first creation of an official police, yet few will now deny that the power of the police has been rightly exercised, and that instead of restraining the liberty of the good part of the community, it has extended it, by freeing them in a measure from the molestation of the bad; and no one now thinks of pointing to the police as the infringers of liberty, that is, as the infringers of the liberty of the peaceful and honest, for the more the liberty of the turbulent and dishonest is restricted, the better—the freedom of the malefactor being the bondage of the just. And such, I am satisfied, would in time become the general feeling regarding an arrangement for securely detaining every offender when once caught, until there is a rational prospect of his living honestly and peaceably.

Let it be observed that in Switzerland and America, where freedom is held as dear as in this country, imprisonment is sometimes awarded for the whole life, and without, therefore, the limit provided by the plan under consideration, namely, a limit depending on cure; and that it is not of rare but of frequent occurrence in America, that, even as regards the young and comparatively innocent, an offender is sent to a reformatory school (which is, in fact, a prison), there to be kept, should it be judged necessary, till he is of age.

It is remarkable, indeed, that sometimes, even with us, no limit is assigned to the duration of imprisonment for one kind of offense, and one which is generally looked upon as comparatively venial—I allude to the offense of *debt*, while undergoing incarceration for which persons in English prisons sometimes grow old and die.

It may fairly be anticipated that when vigorous measures have been taken for getting within prison walls all who ought to be there, followed up by a system for preventing premature liberations, criminals, especially adult criminals, will become comparatively rare, and the necessity for long periods of imprisonment infrequent.—"Crime," by FREDERIC HILL. London, 1853.

LUNACY IN PENNSYLVANIA.

The third report of the Committee on Lunacy of the Board of Charities of the State of Pennsylvania is a volume of nearly 300 pages, and is illustrated by a colored map of the hospital districts of the insane, a number of architectural drawings, portraits of Drs. T. D. Kirkbridge and J. A. Reed (deceased superintendents of hospitals for the insane), and about eighty full-page views of buildings, chiefly almshouses and the departments for the insane connected with them. The descriptions given of almshouses are uniform in their arrangement as to details, and cover 142 pages. The illustrations are a decided help to their comprehension.

Some of these pauper establishments are capacious, ornate, and attractive in their appearance, *e. g.*, those in Erie, Fayette, Mercer, Montgomery, and Venango counties. Some are substantial, but barn-like in their disregard for architectural effect. Some present the appearance of country hotels, or of comfortable farm-houses. Others, still, have a repulsive look. Whoever desires to see typical specimens of county insane receptacles should turn to the lithographs, from photographs, which face pages 143, 158, 166, 176, 187, 241, 249, and 267. The picture of the "insane den" in Bradford county is realistic in its severity, but lacks a nude lunatic in the background to give it life.

The committee does well in urging the transfer of all the lunatics possible from these insane departments to State institutions; and we note with pleasure that in a great number of counties this has been effected. They say: "We do not propose to enter at length upon the question whether the insane can be treated best in State or county hospitals. Admitting that it is an open question, the weight of sentiment at the present time is unquestionably in favor of State treatment."

The report contains an interesting account of the burning of the main building of the insane department of Blockley almshouse, in Philadelphia, February 12, 1885, in which there were at that time 685 patients, of whom 21 lost their lives. At this fire a lady physician, Mary Alice Avery, distinguished herself above all who were present, by her heroic rescue of a patient locked in a room, three sides of which were exposed to the flames, and making a successful retreat through a corridor 800 feet long, filled with stifling smoke. It was alleged that one of the male attendants, from motives of revenge, had induced a colored patient to set fire to the building. The coroner's jury rendered a verdict charging him with this crime, but when brought before Judge Fell, on a writ of *habeas corpus*, March 27th, the court decided that the evidence was insufficient to hold him, and he was discharged.

The effect of the fire, in overcrowding the State hospitals for the insane, was most disastrous, particularly at Norristown, where over 1,400 patients are accommodated in buildings originally designed for 800, but whose capacity has been increased to 1,040 by fitting up dining-rooms in the basement and converting the ward dining-rooms into dormitories. The Board of Guardians favors the rebuilding of the burned structure; but the Board of Public Charities opposes it, and advocates the erection, by the State, of two new institutions—a hospital for the criminal insane, and an additional hospital for ordinary public patients, to be in Philadelphia county, which now has 1,724 patients in the State hospitals, including 274 at Blockley with them.

The number of insane in institutions of all classes, in Pennsylvania, September 30, 1885, was 5,640, as follows: In State hospitals, 3,205; Dixmont, 537; Blockley, 274; private hospitals, 477; private houses, 32; almshouses, 1,057; prisons, 58.

The income of five State hospitals (including Dixmont under this head) last year was $870,769.55, from the following sources: On hand. October 1 1884, $55,771.89; from appropriations, $366,812.36; indigent patients, $352,896.81; private patients, $82,710.69; all other sources, $12,577.80.

The expenditures were $786,455.22, as follows: Salaries, wages, and labor, $189,245.97; provisions and supplies, $229,015.52; fuel and light, $63,096.62; clothing, etc., $46,997.53; furniture, bedding, etc., $38,319.45; medicine, $8,540.22; ordinary repairs, $42,186.13; travelling, $3,887.93; buildings and improvements, $94,513.95; miscellaneous, ordinary $25,643.29; miscellaneous, extraordinary, $84,314.33. Of the total expenditure, $666,297.98 is classed as "current." The average number of patients having been 3,355, this would give, as the per capita cost of maintenance, $198.60.*

Other statistics of general interest are the following:

Recoveries, 257; percentage of recoveries on average population, 7.66; on admissions, 15.41; on total number treated, 5.56.

Deaths, 322.

Admissions, 1,667, of which 1,524 were first admissions, and 143 were re-admissions.

Discharges, 875.

Total number under treatment, 4,617.

Gain in population during year, 792 (of whom 356 were received from Blockley).

The above statistics relate only to the five hospitals directly under State control. Those which we proceed now to give, include the Friends' Asylum, Pennsylvania Hospital, and Philadelphia Hospital (Blockley) as well:

Native patients admitted, 2,057; foreign, 599; unknown, 142; total, 2,798. The highest number of admissions was in February, 371; and the lowest in October, 122.

The number admitted, said to be suffering from a first attack of insanity, was 1,383, or less than one-half. But in 414 cases the number of the attack was unknown.

The form of insanity, in those admitted, recovered, and died, was:

Form.	Admitted.	Recovered.	Died.
Mania	1,141	217	169
Monomania	18	2	3
Melancholia	431	141	75
Dementia	307	18	121
Idiocy and imbecility	81	—	10
Paresis	75	—	38
Dipsomania	2	—	—
Opium habit	1	—	—
Not insane	1	—	—
Total	2,057	378	416

For other information of a statistical nature we refer our readers to the report itself.

A plan of the system of sewerage by irrigation at Norristown, referred to in our issue for April, printed in colors, is worthy of examination by parties interested in the subject.

Appended to the report are papers, by Dr. John B. Chapin, on the "Progress and Tendencies in Care and Treatment of the Insane Observed during the Past Year"; by Dr. H. M. Wetherill, on the "Action of Hyoscine Hydrobromate and of Hyoscyamine in Insanity"; and memorials of Drs. Kirkbride and Reed.

The committee thinks that the private patients in public asylums should be removed, to make room for the indigent wards of the State; and that the establishment of more good private institutions for the insane is desirable.

It commends the opening of a cottage at the seashore by the managers of the "Friends' Asylum," and the name given to it—"Gurney Cottage." It also approves of the estab-

* The average number of patients in the State hospitals of Illinois, for the same period, was 2,923; total ordinary expenses, $546,776.54; per capita cost, $187.06. Total expenses, including extraordinary, $786,650.84, of which the State paid $745,437.61.

lishment, at Glen Mills, in Delaware county, eighteen miles from Philadelphia, on the West Chester branch of the Pennsylvania railroad, of the "Convalescents' Retreat."

CANADIAN PENITENTIARIES.

Mr. James G. Moylan, (whom we had the pleasure of meeting at the Detroit Prison Congress, last October), has kindly sent us a copy of his report as Inspector of Penitentiaries of the Dominion of Canada for the year ending June 30, 1885. The movement of population was as follows:

Prison.	July 1, '84.		Received.		Disch'g'd		June 30, '85.	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Kingston	446	28	196	21	146	8	496	41
St. Vincent de Paul	265		119		123		261	
Dorchester	132	6	64	4	51	9	145	1
Manitoba	92	5	44	5	64	10	72	
British Columbia	93		29		26		96	
Total	1,028	39	452	30	410	27	1,070	42

In the discharges are included fifteen deaths.

Dr. Lavell has been appointed warden of Kingston penitentiary, to succeed Mr. Creighton, deceased.

Mr. Moylan is an advocate of a reformatory discipline n prisons, and, as may be inferred, is an opponent of the contract system of prison labor. On this point he says:

I am opposed to contract labor in the penitentiaries, but on higher ground than that taken by the Illinois legislature or the Dominion Parliament, namely: its competition with free labor—a mere myth. I object to it because it is detrimental to discipline, no matter how strict the surveillance of the prison officers. Despite the utmost vigilance, the intercourse of the employés of the contractors with the convicts has a bad influence. Moreover, the contract system very often causes injustice to be done to individual convicts. As at school we see some boys who can learn their lessons and master a proposition in algebra or geometry with greater facility and rapidity than others, so, among convicts, there are some who can perform their daily task, allotted by the contractor or his foreman, in half or even quarter the time it will take others, working with good will and to the best of their ability to do the same work. The former generally earn money for themselves, by working overtime; the latter, on the complaint of the contractor or his representative, are punished for idleness or scheming.

If the "demagogues and trades-unions" are satisfied with either the piece-price or public-account system of prison labor, "it will be proof positive that the outcry against contract prison labor was mere frothy declamation—*vox et præterea nihil.*"

He rejoices that the consideration of the convict's money value to the State has given place to that of the possibility of restoring him to society, a better man, capable of not alone supporting himself but of contributing by his industry to the revenue of the State. In the United States, he says, "a money value of $1,000 is set upon every immigrant between the ages of eighteen and fifty," and suggests that the value of reformed convicts to the State may be estimated at a like sum.

On the other hand, he laments that the Dominion was not represented at any American or International Prison Congress, except that at Detroit in 1885; and that the vital question of prison reform, which is attracting the attention of almost every other civilized country, fails to evoke the sympathy or support of the Canadian press.

The defects in the Canadian penitentiary system, in his judgment, are mainly two: first, the want of proper classification, as under the Crofton system, and as practised at Elmira; and second, the want of a preliminary stage of strictly cellular confinement, as at Philadelphia. He approves of the good time laws, and of the issue of badges of merit for good conduct; but favors the indeterminate sentence:

In Belgium and in some of the United States, where the test has been made of the indeterminate sentence, after a fixed minimum term,* very good results are reported to have accrued. Habitual criminals—who are the scourge of the community when free, and whose bad example and influence with the well-disposed in prison are most pernicious—serve, as a rule, many terms of imprisonment short and long. When their sentences expire, they are released, no matter what may be their character and conduct while in prison. When at large, in most cases, they return to their former habits of life, and commit over again the crimes for which they have again and again been punished. No change of heart or disposition has been brought about while in prison. They look forward to the time when they will again be free to resume their old life of crime. Under the indeterminate sentence, such and all other criminals can be held in durance, until they shall afford to the authorities appointed to decide upon the matter unmistakable proof of reformation, before being discharged. I consider that this plan would aid very much in the maintenance of discipline, that it would be a strong inducement to the worst class of criminals to amend their lives, that it would be in the interest of law and order and of society, and I therefore recommend its adoption by law.

Some plan should be adopted for the identification of former convicts among the prisoners held for trial before the several criminal courts, in order that the judges may sentence recidivists accordingly.

The character of prison officers and employés requires to be elevated by appointments solely for merit, training-schools, and permanence in office.

Idiotic and insane convicts should not be retained in penitentiaries: at Kingston, the imbeciles and lunatics form 25 per cent. of the total prison population.

The revelations made in this report as to the size of cells at Kingston can only be fitly characterized as disgraceful to the Canadian government. They are eight feet long, six and a half high, and only two feet three inches in width: Mr. Moylan says that they may be more appropriately called tombs or sepulchres than cells.

From the reports of the prison officers appended to the inspector's report, we glean some statistical information. The inventory of the five prisons aggregates $2,550,000; for the number of prisoners—average, 1,070—this seems high; the value of the lands and buildings is estimated at nearly $2,300 per capita. The gross expenditures appear to have been, say, $290,000; deduct from this $20,000 revenue, and divide the net expense by the average number of prisoners; the result is a net cost of over $250 per capita. For the details of the tables relating to prisoners, their offences, good time earned, pardons granted, disciplinary punishments inflicted, etc., we have not room. We suggest that the value of the report would be increased, if these particulars were consolidated in general tables, instead of being scattered, as now, through the appendix, under each prison separately.

THE COUNTY AGENTS OF MICHIGAN.

December, 1885, is a long time ago; but we have just received the Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Conference of County Agents and Convention of the Board of Corrections and Charities, held at Big Rapids, Michigan, on the 2d and 3d of the month named above.

By an act passed in 1873, the governor was authorized to appoint in each county of the State an agent of the State Board, whose duty it should be to find homes for children discharged from the State institutions, visit all children indentured or placed out by these institutions, and watch over them, to prevent them from becoming the victims of cruelty or neglect. It was further made the duty of courts and magistrates before whom complaint should be made against any boy or girl under the age of sixteen years, to give notice to the county agent of the proper county, before proceeding to hear or determine the case, in order to give said agent an

* This is a mistake, so far as relates to the United States. It is the maximum, not the minimum, term which is fixed.

opportunity to investigate and report upon it; the court or magistrate might then, instead of committing the child to a penal or reformatory institution, return him to his natural guardians, or authorize the agent to bind him out during his minority to some respectable person.

There are eighty counties in Michigan: about seventy of them have county agents. The number of children placed out, in 1885, by the State Public School at Coldwater, was 312; there were 100 changed from one home to some other. According to the statement of Mr. Foster, the superintendent of this school, "in 40 counties, not a single child has been placed; in 56 counties, but ten or twelve children have been placed by county agents; in the rest of the counties, 300 were placed." This strikes us as an arithmetical puzzle, which we shall not attempt to solve. What is clear, is that there are 1,400 or 1,500 indentured children subject to visitation by the agents of the State board.

The legislature, in 1885, amended the law relating to county agents, in several important particulars, and these amendments were a principal topic of remark and discussion by the Conference.

The feature of the new law which provoked the most debate, was whether the legislature had done well in providing that the agents should visit children placed out only when requested to do so by the officers in charge of the school at Coldwater, or of the State Reform School at Lansing, or of the House of Correction and Reformatory at Ionia. Mr. Wheeler, a member of the State board, said that the object of the old law was to have a corps of agents unconnected with and not under the influence of any institution, whose pay did not depend on any one school, making reports to a central body which was merely a custodian of the facts. The new law, on the other hand, substitutes for the county agents the agents of the schools. The life is taken out of the system of visitation. Mr. Howell, agent for Kent county, said:

> While I can but speak the praises of the agent of the State Public School, as a man and as an officer, it is an absolute impossibility for him or any other man to visit every one of the 1,200 or 1,400 children from that school once in every year, to say nothing of the almost innumerable extra visits which it is necessary to make during all portions of the year.

Mr. Foster said:

> We thought that having visits made only when requested would save expense. We really had no right to ask men to investigate a case and receive no pay for it. Many agents dislike visiting children. It is very unpleasant to remove children, and we wished to remove all unpleasantness from the agents. The present law requires county agents, without waiting for instruction from the school, to investigate at once any case of reported ill-treatment; but it is important that the decision in each case should be made at the school. We have over 1,000 children in homes, and we could not keep track of them, if eighty different men were looking after and moving them without our knowledge. Our agent has the same ways of knowing about a home that the county agent has: the county agent has to write and find out about a home, unless it is in his own town.

The upshot of the discussion was the passage of a resolution that it was the sense of the convention that the county agents should be empowered by law to select township agents to assist them in their work.

Several interesting papers were read before the convention: On Proper Homes for the Wards of the State and How to Find Them, by Mr. E. L. Sprague; On Recent Statutory Changes Affecting Indentured Children, by Mr. C. C. Howell; On Provision for Juvenile Offenders without Branding Them as Criminals, by Mr. I. H. McCollum; On the Work of the State Board, by Mr. L. C. Storrs; On the Support of Inmates of Institutions, by Mr. M. Shoemaker; On Discharged Prisoners, by Mr. E. C. Watkins, warden at Ionia; On the Changes in Laws Relating to Penal and Pauper Matters by the Late Legislature, by Mr. J. J. Wheeler; On Girls in Penal Institutes, by Miss E. C. Putnam, of Boston; and On the Institutions of the Catholic Church in Michigan, by Father O'Brien.

DUCKER'S PORTABLE BARRACK AND FIELD HOSPITAL.

The *Scientific American* (New York) of June 26th contains an illustrated description of an invention by Mr. William M. Ducker, a citizen of Brooklyn, N. Y., which has received a silver medal from the "Red-Cross Society," contributed by the Empress of Germany, and he has been further honored by a message from the Emperor, congratulating him upon the excellence of his design. What follows is quoted from the paper named above:

The main building is 34 ft. long and 17 ft. wide. The height is 10 ft. 3 in. at the ridge pole, and 6 ft. 6 in. at sides. It is built in sections, for convenience in transportation, and can be put up without the use of nails or screws. Two men can erect the baraque without the least difficulty, and in little more than an hour's time, as all the parts lock into each other and are perfectly interchangeable. Each side consists of six double sections. These are made of strong, light frameworks of wood, hinged together, and covered on the outside with leather board or other light waterproof material.

To each double section are attached, as shown, a bed, table, and chair, while in the panel over the table there are a glass window sash, opening inwardly, and a slatted shutter opening outwardly. During transportation the hinged section is shut together, enclosing these several articles and protecting them from damage. The end of the baraque is also made in sections. The ridge-pole is divisible into two or three parts, and is provided with suitable slots, into which the rafters are keyed. When the structure is set up, a standard army duck roof extends over all. The floor is made in similar sections, which key into the sides and into a central longitudinal shaft. The floor being eight inches above the ground, all dampness is avoided. The central shaft is provided with three registers, and may be used either for hot or cold air, or for disinfectants. Ordinary inequalities in the ground are provided for by adjustable feet attached to the side sections and to the floor. In addition to the main structure, there is a small annex at each end, to be used for heating and other purposes.

Each baraque, it will be seen, thus gives sleeping accommodation for twelve men. Every provision has been made for the comfort of the invalid. A rope suspended from the rafter over the bed permits him to raise himself; a chair-back is provided when he wishes to sit up; a small slate is tacked over the bed to receive any memoranda the physician or nurse may want to make. In short, the baraque is remarkably complete. And yet, when ready for transportation, it weighs, with all its furnishings, only about 2,500 pounds, and has the great advantage of being all in large pieces. There is absolutely nothing to get lost, for every thing is fastened securely in place. It is also probable that the baraque will be utilized to some extent by the health authorities of several American cities, in order to provide comfortable temporary hospitals in case of epidemics. It furnishes indeed pleasant accommodation for a number of purposes, where shelter of a temporary or semi-permanent character is required. The inventor is to be congratulated for the distinction he has won in the face of European competition, and for the material aid he has rendered to those whose mission it is to save life.

COCAINE.—Some one recently wrote an article which appeared in a local daily paper on cocaine, under the caption "The Devil's Own Drug." I heartily congratulate him on his selection of a phrase whereby to designate this drug, so devilish in its influence upon man when used for its exhilarating properties. For, once this charmer has charmed its victim, it undermines his physical and mental powers, his honor, honesty, conscience, veracity, faith, chastity, morality, self-respect, and the respect of his fellow-men for him. To the self-complacency, egotism, and disregard of truth which it begets I attribute one half of the statements made by slaves of alcohol and morphine who have been placed upon it, to the effect that their former favorite is no longer desired. In the remaining fifty per cent. there is probably no longing for the old mistress because cocaine has simply for the time displaced—not eradicated—the previous habit. It is an *ignis fatuus*, luring its captives to almost certain and irretrievable ruin, morally, mentally, socially, and financially. It produces insanity in a remarkably short time, if used continuously and in increasing doses, by producing hyperæmia of the brain. Let us for a moment review some of the mental symptoms due to its use in considerable quantities. These are: 1, sleeplessness; 2, carelessness; 3, forgetfulness; 4, emotional mobility; 5, suspicion; 6, extravagant ideas, claims of mental superiority and physical prowess—in short, ideas of grandeur; 7, attacks of maniacal excitement alternating with melancholia. Does not this picture recall that made up of the mental symptoms present in general paralysis of the insane?—Dr. A. B. SHAW, late associate physician to St. Vincent's Institute for the Insane, St. Louis, Mo.

He prayeth well who loveth well
Both man and bird and beast;
He prayeth best who loveth best
All things both great and small;
For the dear God who loveth us,
He made and loveth all.—COLERIDGE.